

ticular meanings of 'active' and 'passive' voice united by the general meaning of 'voice'.

One of the most difficult problems connected with the category of voice is the problem of participle II, the most essential part of all 'passive voice' grammemes. The fact is that participle II has a 'passive' meaning not only when used with the word-morpheme **be**, but also when used alone.

Participle II may have left-hand connections with the link-verbs. The combination of words thus formed is often homonymous with a 'passive voice' verb, as in **His duty is fulfilled**. The group **is fulfilled** cannot be treated as the passive voice opposite of **fulfils** since

- 1) it does not convey the idea of action, but that of state, the result of an action;
- 2) the sentence corresponds rather to **He has fulfilled his duty** than to **He fulfils his duty**, as the perfective meaning of participle II is particularly prominent.

Some linguists (Vorontsova, Barkhudarov, Shtelling) are against this interpretation. According to Barkhudarov and Shtelling, the combination **be+participle II** should in all cases be treated as a 'passive voice' form on the ground that participle II is, first and foremost, a verb, the idea of state not being incident to this structure, but resulting from the lexical meaning of the verb and the context it occurs in. Vorontsova also maintains that the passive form expresses either an action in its development or an action as an accomplished fact. In both cases we deal with the passive voice.

The category of ORDER (TIME CORRELATION) is a system of two-member opposeemes, such as **writes - has written, wrote - had written, writing - having written, to be written - to have been written**. The category of order shows whether the action is viewed as prior to ('perfect') or irrespective of ('non-perfect') other actions or situations. The interpretation of this category belongs to the most controversial problems of English grammar.

Linguists disagree as to the category the 'perfect' belongs to. Some Russian authors (Ilyish, Vorontsova) think that it forms part of the aspect system (Ilyish calls it the 'resultative' aspect, Vorontsova - the 'transmissive' aspect. This point of view is shared by quite a number of grammarians both in our country and abroad.

Other linguists treat the 'perfect' as belonging to the system of tense. Ivanova regards the 'perfect' as part of the 'tense-aspect' system. The first to draw attention to the fact that opposeemes like **writes - has written, wrote - had written** and so on represent a grammatical category different from that of tense was A.I. Smirnitsky. If we take a close look at the 'perfect', we can say that the 'perfect' serves to express priority, whereas the non-perfect member of the opposeme leaves the action unspecified to its being prior or not to another action, situation or point of time. Smirnitsky calls the category represented by **writes-has written** the category of time correlation.

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya say that he gives a detailed analysis of the category, but the terms he uses are very inconvenient and they stand for another term —the category of order.

All the opposeemes of the category of order are exactly alike with regard to the content. They have the same particular meanings of 'perfect' and 'non-perfect' order united by the general meaning of the category, that of 'order'. In this respect **writes - has written** and **wrote- had written** are identical.

The category of ASPECT is a system of two-member opposeemes such as **works - is working, has worked -has been working, to work -to be working**. This category shows the character of the action, that is whether the action is taken in its progress, in its development ('continuous') or it is simply stated, its nature being unspecified ('non-continuous').

The problem of aspect is controversial in English grammar. There is but little consensus of opinion about this category in Modern English. One meets with different lines of approach to English aspect, which can be briefly summarized as follows:

1. Aspect is interpreted as a category of semantics rather than that of grammar.

2. Aspect is not recognized at all as a category of Modern English grammar.
3. Aspect is blended with tense and regarded as a part of the tense-aspect system.
4. Aspect and tense are recognized as two distinct grammatical categories.

Typical of the first line are the views advanced by Deutschbein, Kennedy, Curme and some other grammarians.

With regard to the category of aspect verbs can be divided into those that have aspect opposites and those that have not. The latter are united by the lexico-grammatical meaning of 'non-continuous' aspect.

Here is a brief enumeration of some groups of verbs usually having no aspect opposites.

1. Verbs presenting diverse relations as actions - **belong, contain, consist, possess, resemble.**
2. Certain link-verbs such as **appear, look, seem, turn out.**
3. Verbs of 'physical perception' ~ **see, hear, feel.**
4. Verbs of 'mental perception' - **believe, dislike.**
5. 'Point-action' verbs denoting acts of very short duration - **burst, jump, drop.**

#### QUESTIONS

1. Why is the verb called a system of systems?
2. By what features is the verb defined as a part of speech?
3. Under what groups do verbs fall in accordance with their stem-structure? What is the most productive way of forming verb lexemes?
4. What are general classifications of verbs based on their formal, semantic and functional properties?
5. What's the difference between the combinability of link-verbs and notions' verbs?
6. What verbs are called 'notional links'?

7. What is the peculiarity of modal verbs?
8. On what basis are verbs divided into subjective and objective?
9. Explain the division of verbs into terminative and non-terminatives.
10. Speak about \ category of voice.
11. What is one of the most difficult problems connected with the category of voice?
12. What are the problems connected with the category of order or time correlation?
13. How can you characterise the category of aspect?
14. Name some groups of verbs which usually do not have aspect opposites.

#### Задания для семинарских занятий

### 1 семинар ЧАСТИ РЕЧИ

1. Первые классификации частей речи.
2. Особенности различных современных классификаций.
3. Новое в подходе структуралистов.
4. Принципиальные трудности классификации по частям речи для всех языков.
5. Части речи как классы слов, объединенные грамматическим содержанием.
6. Понятие о дистинктивных признаках.
7. Неоднородность каждой части речи. Понятие о подклассе. Полевая природа частей речи.
8. Недифференцированность слов различных частей речи как особенность английского языка. Возможность трактовки этого явления как омонимии. Слабые стороны этой аргументации.
9. Окказиональное использование слов в других частях речи.

10. Отличие знаменательных слов от служебных.
11. Сложность разграничения служебных и знаменательных слов.

## **2 с е м и н а р**

### **ПАДЕЖИ**

1. История теории падежа. Логическое и морфологическое определение падежа.
2. Система Суита, Керма, Есперсена. Возражение против такого деления. Контрастное мнение структуралистов. Уайтхолл.
3. История изменения категории.
4. Падежные отношения и предлоги.
5. Система английского падежа и понятие владения и притяжательности.
6. Отсутствие синтаксической специализации современного притяжательного падежа.
7. Переход к единой морфологии именной группы.
8. Особенности общего падежа.
9. О возможности употребления притяжательного падежа с неодушевленными существительными.
10. Деривационная история притяжательного падежа.

## **3 с е м и н а р**

### **НАКЛОНЕНИЕ**

1. Определение наклонения. Количество наклонений в английском языке. Обзор классификаций наклонения у различных авторов.

2. Определение повелительного наклонения. Категориальные и другие особенности повелительного наклонения от форм инфинитива. Возможные способы трактовки соответствующих форм не как повелительное наклонение. Косвенно-побудительные предложения. Другие возмож-

тать формами СН? О взаимоотношении СН и сочетаний модальных глаголов с инфинитивом. Омонимия грамматических форм и СН.

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Учебно-методическое пособие

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**Морфология современного  
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**Часть 1**

**MORPHOLOGY**

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В издании приводятся различные точки зрения отечественных и зарубежных лингвистов по предмету морфологии; объясняются грамматические термины; рассматриваются теоретические положения, предлагаются вопросы для самоконтроля и семинарских занятий.

Учебно-методическое пособие предназначено для студентов старших курсов факультета иностранных языков по специальности «Английский язык» и направлено на то, чтобы дать им начальные знания в области теоретической грамматики современного английского языка.

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## INTRODUCTION. MORPHOLOGY: TERMS

The object of MORPHOLOGY is the structure, classification and combinability of words. SYNTAX deals with the structure, classification and combinability of sentences.

The MORPHEME is the smallest meaningful unit. It is said to be the ultimate unit of the semantic level of the language. The MORPHEME is

- 1) a recurrent meaningful form which cannot be further analysed into smaller recurrent meaningful forms;
- 2) a grammatical morpheme is a linguistic form which bears no partial phonetic-semantic resemblance to any other form.

The WORD is the smallest naming unit.

The units (of each levels) can be analysed as to their inner structure, the classes they belong to in the language system (or their paradigmatic relations), and the combinations they form in speech (or their syntagmatic relations).

The structure of various units and the classes they form (paradigmatic relations) are the sphere of language. The combinations the same units form in the process of communication (syntagmatic relations) are the sphere of speech.

PARADIGM is interpreted as a formal way of saying of a type of something: a pattern, a model; in grammar it means the different forms of a word, thus verbs are conjugated and nouns are declined, adjectives and adverbs have forms of degrees of comparison, their forms correspondingly make the verbal, noun, adjectival or adverbial paradigms.

The relationship between linguistic form and linguistic meaning reveals itself in what is known as SYNCRETISM and SUSPENSION, or in other words, grammatical homonymy and grammatical synonymy. The latter is sometimes terminologically presented by variation of expression. By syncretism is meant falling together of two or more grammatical meanings in one and the same grammatical form.

We speak of HOMONYMY when the same element of sound, the same unit of the expression level is connected with different units on the semantic level. Homonymy presupposes that the grammatical meaning of two forms is incompatible, while the form is assumed to be identical.

SYNONYMY as a fact of grammatical morphology presupposes that two units have the same grammatical meaning being different in form.

Grammatical POLYSEMY is observed in grammatical expression of a host of intricate distinctions of a noun known as the genitive and the possessive.

SYNTHESIS and ANALYSIS are two very powerful morphological devices and processes.

The grammatical system of Modern English is mainly based on what is usually described as analytical forms, that is, combinations of the type more rapidly, has said, was interviewed. The function of an analytical form is equivalent to that of a single synthetic word-form.

CATEGORY is defined as operating in a system for dividing things according to appearances, qualities; a type or a group of things having some features that are the same.

CATEGORIZATION is the process of discovering and explaining the fundamental concepts of a science. Categorization is closely related to a methodology of a science, the way of interpreting scientific facts, including language.

A grammatical category is connected with a certain expression of a certain meaning which is systematically, recurrently rendered. To understand the process of establishing a grammatical category it is very important to introduce the concept of opposition. A grammatical category is constituted by the opposition of no less than two mutually incompatible grammatical forms.

# 1. MORPHOLOGY, ITS DEFINITION AND ITS PLACE AMONG OTHER LINGUISTIC DISCIPLINES. MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

Grammar consists of two parts: morphology and syntax. Morphology deals with parts of speech, syntax - with sentences. Morphology "is" defined as that branch of linguistics which concerns itself with the structure of words as dependent on the meaning of constituent morphemes and the system of morphological oppositions in a given language including their grammatical categories as unities of form and content.

Morphology is studied not merely to understand the abstract schemes, but to acquire practical knowledge of the actual functioning of morphological oppositions.

Morphology and accidence. Some grammarians used another term for morphology - accidence. It is a word of Latin origin and according to the dictionary it is defined as follows: that part of grammar which deals with the inflection of words, or the declension of nouns, adjectives, etc, and the conjugation of verbs. So, mainly accidence studies inflection or inflected word-forms.

Morphology as a more general term means the study of those elements of language which are used to extend or limit the meaning of a word, to define its relation to other parts of a sentence.

Morphology and phonology. Since words are made up of sounds, we can also say that morphology is concerned with sequences of phonemes that have meaning. The word "word" is such a sequence. While phonology studies speech sounds as a means of differentiating the sound-causal of words and morphemes which are semiologically relevant, morphology is aimed at analysing the ways to render morphologically or grammatically relevant. Phonological differences can be observed for example in discipline - disciple, rice - rise. But the following variations in come - came, meet - met are grammatically (or morphologically) important.

The word "morphology" consists of two meaningful elements: morpho - form and logos - word. Morpheme is said to be an ultimate unit of the semantic level of the language. Morphemes are not divisible any longer. To explain what morpheme is let's take the word "books" for example. This word can be broken up in two parts: book- and -s. The content of the first part can be rendered by the Russian *книг* - and the meaning of the second is "plurality". Each of the two parts of the "books" has both form and content. Such meaningful parts of a word are called morphemes. If we break up the word "books" in some other way: boo-ks, the

We have two morphemes in the word "book" - book - and zero morpheme. Morphemes of the book-type and their meanings are called lexical. The meaning of the morpheme -s is relative, dependent, it is called grammatical meaning and such morphemes grammatical. Besides lexical and grammatical there exist some intermediate types: the first morphemes in the words de-part, for-give and the second in fly-er, home-less. They are called lexico-grammatical. Morphemes de-, for-, -er, -less are bound morphemes. English also possesses free lexico-grammatical morphemes (get up, the Volga). Morphemes un- in "unusual" and under- in "undergraduate" are called prefixal morphemes. Morphemes -al in "general" and -ful in "careful" are called suffixal morphemes. Also there is a root morpheme -usual in "unusual" and care- in "careless, careful".

## QUESTIONS

- 1) How can you define morphology?
- 2) What is a more general term morphology or accidence?
- 3) What is the difference between morphology and phonology?
- 4) Give a definition of the morpheme.
- 5) Divide the word "speaks" into morphemes and say how they are called.
- 6) What types of morphemes do you know?



## 2. THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS

Both lexical and grammatical morphemes usually have more than one meaning. All the lexical meanings of the word **"goes"** inherent in the morpheme **go-** unite this word with **to go, going, will go, has gone, is going, was going** into one group called **lexeme**. Many grammarians use the term **"word"** with regard to such a group.

All the grammatical meanings of the word **"goes"** inherent in the morpheme **-s** unite this word with **runs, speaks, works, walks, lives** and a great many other words into a group we shall call a **grammeme**. The words of a lexeme or a grammeme are united not only by the meanings of the corresponding morpheme, but by its form too.

The number of words in an English lexeme may vary from one (**must, milk, woolen, always**) to several dozens. The number of words in a grammeme is usually very great, practically limitless. A word like **"goes"** containing a lexical and a grammatical morpheme is at the same time a member of a certain grammeme.

In a lexeme the lexical morpheme may be regarded as invariable (at least in content) and the grammatical morphemes as variables. In a grammeme, on the contrary, the grammatical morpheme is invariable and the lexical morphemes are variables. Each word of a lexeme represents a certain grammeme, and each word of a grammeme represents a certain lexeme. The set of grammemes represented by all the words of a lexeme is its **paradigm**. The set of lexemes represented by all the words of a grammeme is usually so large that it is almost of no practical value and has therefore got no name.

There is an essential difference in the way lexical and grammatical meanings exist in the language and occur in speech. Lexical meanings can be found in a bunch only in a dictionary or in the memory of a man, or, scientifically, in the lexical system of a language. In actual speech a lexical morpheme

displays only one meaning of the bunch in each case, and that meaning is singled out by the context or the situation of speech (in grammar it is called syntagmatically). The meanings of a grammatical morpheme always come together in the word. In accordance with their relative nature they can be singled out only relatively in contrast to the meanings of other grammatical morphemes (in grammar it is called paradigmatically).

The following conclusions can be drawn:

1. The words of a lexeme are united not only by a lexical morpheme functioning as its root, but also by its lexico-grammatical morphemes functioning as its stem-building elements. It is the stem that unites words into a lexeme. To lay stress on the content we may say that a lexeme is a group of words united by the same lexical and lexico-grammatical meanings. Though the words **person, personality, personal, personify, personification** have the same lexical morpheme, they belong to different lexemes owing to their lexico-grammatical morphemes.

2. Lexico-grammatical morphemes unite lexemes into groups possessing common lexico-grammatical properties.

### QUESTIONS

- 1) Give the definition of a lexeme and a grammeme. Explain the difference.
- 2) What is understood by a paradigm?
- 3) What is an essential difference in the way lexical and grammatical meanings exist in the language and occur in speech?
- 4) What is called in grammar "syntagmatically" and "paradigmatically"?

### 3. PARTS OF SPEECH

Big classes of lexemes have been called parts of speech for over 2000 years. One should bear in mind that classes of units exist only in the system of a language. In speech we come across combinations of individual representatives of various classes.

Parts of speech are the largest word-classes that may contain endless numbers of word-groups such as lexemes or grammemes.

The words of language, depending on various formal and semantic features, are divided into grammatically relevant sets or classes -- part of speech. In modern linguistics, parts of speech are defined on the basis of the three criteria:

1. "semantic" (meaning),
2. "formal" (form),
3. "functional" (function).

The semantic criterion is understood as the categorial meaning of the part of speech. The formal criterion provides for the expositions of the specific inflexional and derivational (word-building) features of all the lexemic subsets of a part of speech. The functional criterion concerns the syntactic role of words in the sentence typical of a part of speech.

According to the described criteria, parts of speech are divided into notional and functional. To the notional parts of speech of the English language belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb, the adverb. To the basic functional parts of speech belong the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word, the interjection.

Many linguists point out the difference between such parts of speech as nouns or verbs and prepositions or conjunctions.

V. Vinogradov thinks that only the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb and the words of the category of state in the Russian language may be considered parts of speech, as these words "can fulfil the naming function

or the indicative equivalents of names". Besides parts of speech Vinogradov distinguishes 4 particles of speech:

1. particles proper
2. linking particles
3. prepositions
4. conjunctions.

E. A. Nida makes no distinction between nouns and prepositions as to their naming function when he writes that "words such as boy, fish, run, walk, good, bad, against and with are signals for various objects, qualities, processes, states and relationships of natural and cultural phenomena."

H. Sweet distinguishes full and empty words.

Many authors speak of function words. D. Brown, C. Brown, D. Baily call auxiliary verbs, prepositions and articles **function words**. C. Fries points out 4 classes of words called parts of speech and 15 groups of words called function words.

The difference between the function words and the others is not so much a matter of form as of content. The lexical meanings of function words are not so distinct as those of other words. If most words of a language are notional, function words may be called semi-notional.

Prepositions, conjunctions, articles and particles may be regarded as semi-notional parts of speech when contrasted with the notional parts of speech. What unites the semi-notional parts of speech is as follows:

1. Their very general and comparatively weak lexical meanings, precluding the use of substitutes.
2. Their practically negative isolatability.
3. Their functions of linking (conjunctions, prepositions) or specifying words (articles, particles).

The system of parts of speech is historically variable. New parts of speech come into being in the course of language progress. Old English, for instance, did not know the category of state, the articles, the modals as separate recognizable as such in New English. But no matter how many parts of speech we may find in a language we see that the vocabulary is not the chaotic mass of separate words. Grammar organizes them into a

comparatively small number of lexico-grammatical classes - parts or particles of speech.

### QUESTIONS

1. What should we bear in mind when speaking about parts of speech?
2. How can you define parts of speech?
3. Speak about three criteria according to which parts of speech are distinguished.
4. What parts of speech belong to the notional?
5. What parts of speech belong to the functional?
6. How can you explain the term "semi-notional"? What unites the semi-notional parts of speech?

### 4. THE NOUN AND ITS CATEGORIES

The noun may be defined as a part of speech characterised by the following features:

1. The lexico-grammatical meaning of "substance".
2. The categories of number and case.

Typical stem-building morphemes, as in teach-er, friend-ship, manage-ment, etc. Left-hand connections with articles, prepositions, adjectives, possessive pronouns, other nouns, etc.

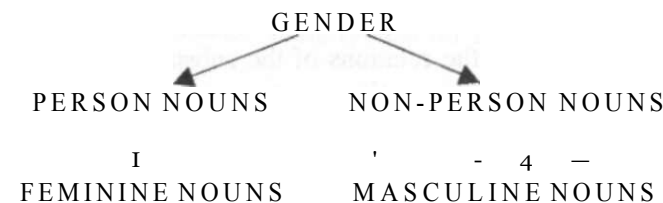
3. The functions of subject and object.

Noun lexemes, like those of other parts of speech, have stems of various types (simple, derivative, compound and composite). Composite stems are less typical of nouns than of other parts of speech, especially verbs. As composite may be regarded the stems of proper nouns like **the Urals**, **the Volga**, where **the** is part of the name. Compound stems, on the contrary, are more typical of nouns than of any other part of speech (**postmark**, **son-in-law**, **passer-by**). Many nouns are related by conversion with lexemes belonging to other parts of speech. The noun is the most numerous lexico-grammatical class of

lexemes. It is but natural that it should be divided into sub-classes.

The combinability of the noun is closely connected with its lexico grammatical meaning. The combinability of words is as a rule determined by their meaning, not their forms. Denoting substances, nouns are naturally associated with words describing the qualities of substances (adjectives), their number and order (numerals), their actions (verbs), relations (prepositions). The combinability of nouns is variable. As it was mentioned above, they have left-hand connections with articles, some pronouns, most adjectives, numerals. With prepositions and verbs they have both left-hand and right-hand connections but only left-hand connections are a characteristic feature of the noun.

The category of **gender** in English is semantic, that is meaningful in so far as it reflects the actual features of the named objects. The gender division of nouns in English is expressed not as variable forms of words, but as nominal classification. The category of gender is expressed in English by the obligatory correlation of nouns with the personal pronouns of the third person. These serve as specific gender classifiers of nouns being reflected on each entry of the noun in speech. The category of gender is strictly oppositional. The oppositional structure of category of gender can be shown on the following diagram me:



A great many person nouns in English are capable of expressing both feminine and masculine person genders by way of the pronominal correlation in question. These are referred to nouns of the "common gender". Here belong such words as **person**, **parent**, **teacher**, **cousin**.

The category of number is expressed by the opposition of the plural form to the singular form of the noun. All number opposemes are identical in content: they contain two particular meanings of "singular" and "plural" united by the general meaning of category of number. An English noun lexeme can contain two number opposemes at most (**girl -girls, girl's - girls'**). Many lexemes have but one opposeme (**pencil - pencils**) and many others have no opposemes at all (advice, news).

In the opposeme **girl - girls** 'singularity' is expressed by a zero morpheme and 'plurality' is marked by the positive morpheme **-s**. In other words, the 'singular' member of the opposeme is not marked, and the 'plural' member is marked.

In the opposeme **girl's - girls'** both members have positive morphemes - **'s, -s'** but these morphemes can be distinguished only in writing. In spoken language their forms do not differ so with regard to each other they are unmarked. They can be distinguished only by their combinability (**a girl's hat - girls' hats**).

With regard to the category of number English nouns fall into two subclasses: countable and uncountable. Countable have number opposites and uncountable not.

The category of case of nouns is the system of opposemes showing the relations of the noun to other words in speech. Case relations reflect the relations of the substances the nouns name to other substances, actions, states, etc. in the world of reality. Case is one of those categories which show the close connection between language and speech, between morphology and syntax. A case opposeme is, like any other opposeme, a unit of the language system, but the essential difference between the members of a case opposeme is in their combinability in speech. An English noun has two cases - common case and possessive case. The common case grammemes are used in a variety of combinations where the possessive case grammemes do not, as a rule, occur. The case is a morphological category but it has a distinct syntactical significance. The common case

grammemes fulfil a number of syntactical functions not typical of possessive case grammemes, among them the functions of subject and object. The possessive case noun is for the most part employed as an attribute.

All case opposemes are identical in content: they contain two particular meanings, of 'common' case and 'possessive' case, united by the general meaning of category, that of "case". An English noun lexeme may contain two case opposemes at most (**man - man's, men - men's**). Some lexemes have only one opposeme (**England - England's, cattle - cattle's**). Many lexemes have no case opposeme at all (**pen, news**). In the opposeme **cat - cat's, men - men's** the 'common' case is not marked, that is cat and men have zero morphemes of 'common case'. The 'possessive' case is marked by the suffix **-s**. In the opposeme **cats -cats'** the difference between the opposites is marked only in writing. So with regard to each other they are not marked.

Thus, **-s** is the only positive case morpheme of English nouns. The whole category depends on this morpheme.

#### QUESTIONS

1. Name all features by which the noun is defined as a part of speech.
2. What stems are more typical for the noun and what are less?
3. Speak about the combinability of nouns.
4. How can you characterise the category of gender?
5. What words belong to the "common gender"?
6. How is the category of number expressed?
7. What does the category of case show?
8. What is the essential difference between the members of a case opposeme?

## 5. THE ADJECTIVE

The adjective expresses the categorial semantics of property of a substance. Adjectives are a part of speech characterised by the following typical features.

1. The lexico-grammatical meaning of 'attributes (of substances)'. It should be understood, that by 'attributes' we mean different properties of substances, such as their size (large, small), colour (black, white), position in space (upper, inner), material (woolen, wooden), state of person (happy, sad).

2. The morphological category of the degrees of comparison. The characteristic combinability with nouns (a red pull-over), link verbs (...is clever), adverbs (a very clever boy), the so-called 'prop' word' one (the grey one).

The stem-building affixes **-ful**, **-less**, **-ish**, **-ous**, **-ive**, **-ic**.

3. Its functions of an attribute and a predicative.

The category of the degrees of comparison of adjectives is the system of opposer, (**tall - taller - tallest**) showing quantitative distinctions of qualities. We speak of the 'positive' (**high, good, interesting**), 'comparative' (**higher, better, more interesting**) and 'superlative' (**highest, best, most interesting**) degrees.

The 'positive' degree is not marked and we may speak of zero morpheme. The 'comparative' and 'superlative' degrees are built up either synthetically (by affixation or suppletivity) or analytically, which in the main depends on the phonetic structure of the stem, not on its meaning.

Some authors (Zigadlo, Ivanova, Iofik) treat **more beautiful** and **(the) most beautiful** not as analytical forms, but as free syntactical combinations of adverbs and adjectives. One of their arguments is that **less** and **least** form combinations with adjectives similar to those with **more** and **most**, e.g. **more beautiful — less beautiful, the most beautiful - the least beautiful**. The similarity is superficial. In order to prove it let us compare **nicer** and **more beautiful**. In order to

prove that **more beautiful** is an analytical form of the comparative degree, we have to prove that **more** is a grammatical word-morpheme identical with the morpheme **-er** in spite of the utter difference in form.

1. **More** and **-er** are identical in their meaning of "a higher degree".

2. Their distribution is complementary. Together they cover all the adjectives having the degrees of comparison, yet those adjectives which have comparative opposites with the suffix **-er** have usually no parallel opposites with **more** and vice versa. **Beautiful** has no other 'comparative' opposite but **more beautiful** (**beautifuler** is impossible), and the comparative opposite of **nice** is **nicer**, not **more nice**.

This is not the case with **less**.

1. **Less** and **-er** have different even opposite meanings.

2. The distribution of **-er** and **less** is not complementary. One and the same lexical morpheme regularly attaches both **less** and **-er**: **prettier - less pretty; safer - less safe**. Besides, unlike **more**, **less** is regularly replaced by **not so**: **less pretty - not so pretty**.

These facts show that **more** in **more beautiful** is a grammatical word-morpheme identical with the morpheme **-er** of the "comparative degree" grammeme. **More beautiful** is an analytical form. The word **less** is not a word-morpheme and **less beautiful** is not an analytical form. The meaning of **less** "to a certain extent" contains the lexical meaning "to a small extent" common to all the words of the lexeme **little -less - least** and the grammatical meaning of "the comparative degree". So, **less** is an ordinary word and **less beautiful** is a combination of words. The same holds true with regard to **(the) most beautiful** and **(the) least beautiful**. One must not forget that **more** and **most** are not only word-morphemes of comparison. They can also be notional words.

With regard to the category of the degrees of comparison adjectives fail under two lexico-grammatical subclasses: comparables and non-comparables. The latter are composed of derived adjectives like **wooden**, **Crimean** denoting some relation to the phenomena the basic stems refer to. Thus, a **wooden house** is a house of wood. **Crimean weather** is 'weather typical of the Crimea'. These adjectives are called relative as distinct from all other adjectives called qualitative. Most qualitative adjectives build up opposeemes of comparison, but some do not:

- a) adjectives that in themselves express the highest degree of a quality (extreme, supreme);
- b) those having the suffix -ish which indicates the degree of a quality (reddish, whitish);
- c) those denoting qualities which are not compatible with the idea of comparison (deaf, dead, lame).

Naturally, all the adjectives which have no comparative and superlative opposites are outside the category of comparison, but they are united by the lexico-grammatical meaning of the positive degree. The positive degree doesn't convey the idea of comparison. Its meaning is absolute. It is the initial stage, the norm of some quality. The positive degree, according to Jespersen, is negative in relation to comparison (**a nice girl, a witty remark**). The comparative degree and the superlative degree are both relative in meaning.

A.I. Smirnitsky, following O.Jespersen, thinks that there is good ground to speak of two forms of comparison only: the positive degree and the relative degree which exists in two varieties - the comparative degree and the superlative degree.

#### QUESTIONS

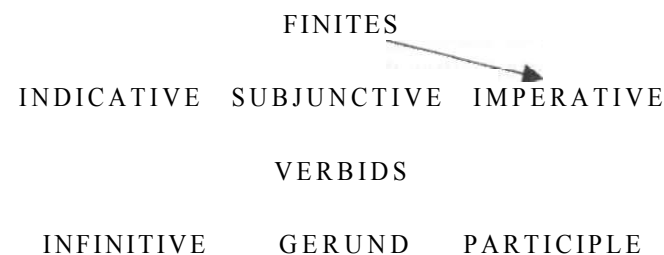
1. Name all features by which the adjective is defined as a part of speech.
2. What does the category of degrees of comparison of adjectives show?
3. How do some autho.<sup>1</sup> treat more beautiful and most beautiful?

4. How can you prove that the similarity between more beautiful - less beautiful, the most beautiful - the least beautiful is superficial?
5. Under what subclasses do adjectives fall with regard to the category of degrees of comparison?
6. What adjectives do not build up opposeemes of comparison and why?  
How does O.Jespersen call the positive degree?
8. What is Smirnitsky's point of view on this problem?

#### 6. THE VERB AND ITS CATEGORIES

Analysing the verb in Modern Russian, V. V. Vinogradov characterizes it as "the most complex and capacious part of speech". A.I. Smirnitsky stresses the intricate nature of the English verb, the system of which includes some other parts of speech in the shape of the so-called non-finite verbs or verbids (the term was suggested by O.Jespersen) - infinitive, gerund and participle.

The verb is a system of systems. The main division inside the verb is that between the finite verbs (finites) and the verbids. The finite verbs can further be subdivided into 3 systems called moods. The infinitive, the gerund and the participle are also three systems within the verbids. Graphically this can be represented thus:



The verb possesses all the features distinguishing a part of speech. As a part of speech the verb is characterized by the following properties:

1. Its lexico-grammatical meaning of "action, process".  
2. Certain typical stem-building elements, such as the suffixes **-ize, -en,ify**; the prefixes **re-, under-, over-, out-, super-, sub, mis-, un-**; the lexico-grammatical word-morphemes **up, in, off, down, out**.

Its grammatical categories; three categories are found not only in the finites, but in the verbids. Two of them - voice and order are found in all the verbids, and the third - aspect - in the infinitive.

Its characteristic combinability: a verb can be associated with nouns (noun-equivalents) denoting the doer (agent) and the recipient of the action expressed by the verb; it is regularly modified by the adverbs.

3. Its syntactical function of the predicate. The verbids have other functions but they are secondary predicates in secondary predications.

In accordance with their stem-structure verbs, like other parts of speech, fall under the following groups:

- a) simple verbs (**know, love**);
- b) derived verbs (**organize, retake**).

Among the stem-building affixes of the verbs prefixes are of greater importance. There is the only one productive stem-building verbal suffix (**-ize**), while productive prefixes are more numerous (**re-, un-, over-, under-, mis-, de-**)

Sound interchange is unproductive (**food - feed, blood - bleed**), so is the change of stress (**increase - to increase**).

The most productive way of forming verb lexemes is conversion: **(a) book - (to) book, (a) man - (to) man**.

c) Compound verbs consisting of two stems, as in **(to) broadcast, (to) whitewash**. But composition is of low productivity in the class of verbs.

d) Composite verbs - made up of a verb with a lexico-grammatical word-morpheme attached to it, as in **give up, give in, take off, put on**. This way of forming verbs is productive.

The combinability of the verb is closely linked with its lexico-grammatical meaning. Denoting an action the verb is

naturally associated with nouns and noun-equivalents indicating the doer or the subject of the action. Many verbs can also be associated with a noun (or a noun-equivalent) denoting the object of the action.

There are some general classifications of verbs based on their formal, semantical and functional properties, that is the division into

- **standard and non-standard;**
- **notional and semi-notional;**
- **subjective and objective;**
- **terminative and non-terminative.**

The overwhelming majority of English verbs are called **standard** or regular. Some two hundred verbs are called **non-standard** or irregular. The difference between the standard and the non-standard verbs is purely formal. We should therefore call this classification formal rather than morphological.

Semantically verbs are divided into **notional and semi-notional**. Some linguists speak also of a third group, auxiliary verbs, completely devoid of lexical meaning, as, for instance, **has in has done**. They are verbs in form only. As to their meaning and function they are grammatical morphemes, parts of analytical words. They are named grammatical word-morphemes.

The majority of English verbs are notional, that is possessing full lexical meaning. Connected with it is their isolatability, that is the ability to make a sentence alone (**Come! Read!**). Their combinability is variable.

Semi-notional verbs have very general, "faded" lexical meanings, as in **be, have, become, seem, can, may, must**, where the meaning of 'action' is almost obliterated. Semi-notional verbs are hardly isolatable. Their combinability is usually bilateral as they serve to connect words in speech. They are comparatively few in number, but of very frequent occurrence, and include two peculiar groups: link-verbs and modal verbs.

Some authors (Zigadlo, Ivanova, Iofik) treat link-verbs as altogether bereft of all lexical meaning. If it were so, there

would be no difference between **He is old. He seems old. He becomes old.** Since **is, seems, becomes** convey the same grammatical meanings.

The combinability of link-verbs is different from that of notional verbs.

- a) It is for the most part bilateral since a link-verb usually connects two words. In this respect it somewhat resembles the combinability of prepositions and conjunctions.
- b) Link-verbs form combinations with words and word-groups which are but seldom attached to notional verbs.

Very often grammarians speak only of finite link-verbs used as parts of predicates forgetting about the corresponding verbids which occur in other functions and prove that link-verbs are not just a syntactical class of verbs.

In Modern English a great number of notional verbs are used with a linking function, so that they may be called **notional links (The sun rose red. - The sun was red.)**.

MODAL VERBS are characterized

- 1) by their peculiar modal meanings. The meaning of 'action, process' common to all verbs is scarcely left, being suppressed by the meanings of 'ability, necessity, permission' to perform an action denoted by some other verb;
- 2) by their peculiar combinability. It is bilateral like that of link-verbs, but unlike link-verbs which can attach words of different classes, modal verbs can be followed by infinitives only (He can play the piano. She ought to have come.);
- 3) by their syntactical function: having no verbids, they are used only as predicates.

OBJECTIVE AND SUBJECTIVE VERBS. Verbs are divided into subjective and objective, depending upon their combinability with words denoting the subjects and the objects of the action they name. **Objective verbs** are mostly associated with two nouns (or noun equivalents) denoting the subject and the object of the action named by the verb. **Subjective**

**verbs** are associated only with nouns (noun-equivalents) denoting the subject of the action.

Objective verbs that are connected with their object words directly are called transitive verbs. All the other verbs, both subjective and **Vective**, are called intransitive.

Verb, can be classified in accordance with the aspective nature of their lexical meanings into TERMINATIVE and NON-TERMINATIVE.

Terminative verbs denote actions which cannot develop beyond a certain inherent limit. The actions denoted by non-terminative verbs have no inherent limits. **Come, take, stand up, sit down, etc.** are terminative verbs. **Live, love, stand, sit, etc.** are non-terminative verbs.

The category of VOICED is the system of two-member opposites (**respects - is respected, respecting - being respected, to respect - to be respected, has respected - has been respected**) which shows whether the action is representing as issuing from its subject (the active voice) or as experienced by its object (the passive voice).

Voice is one of those categories which show the close connection between language and speech. A voice opposite is a unit of the language system, but the essential difference between its members is in their combinability in speech.

The 'active voice' member has obligatory connections with subject words and optional with object words. The 'passive voice' member, on the contrary, forms obligatory combinations with object words and optional ones with subject words.

The category of voice also shows the links between morphology and syntax. Being a morphological category, voice often manifests syntactical relations. The voice opposites of finites indicate whether the subject of the sentence denotes the doer or the recipient of the action. (**She asked. She was asked.**)

With regard to the category of voice verbs are divided into those which have voice opposites and those which have not. The content of all voice opposites is the same: two par-